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REVIEW.

History of the Indian Archipelago; containing an account of the manners, arts, languages, religions, institutions, and commerce of its inhabitants. By JOHN CRAWFURD, F. R. S., late British Resident at the court of the sultan of Java. Three volumes. Edinburgh: 1820.

LONG before the names and situation of the islands of the Indian archipelago were known in Europe, their productions, having found their way far westward, were included among the choicest luxuries of its inhabitants. More than twenty-eight hundred years ago, in the memorable days of the Hebrew commonwealth, king Solomon's navy, which he built on the shores of the Red sea, came to *Ophir*; three years were required for the voyage; the ships were navigated by Tyrian "shipmen that had knowledge of the seas," and they returned laden with spices, gold, ivory, ebony, apes, peacocks, and various other articles. As to the situation of *Ophir* there is a diversity of opinion, and it must probably for ever remain a matter of uncertainty. Josephus places it in the Indies, and says it is called the 'gold country,' by which he is thought to mean the peninsula of Malacca. Others think it is Sumatra, Java, or Celebes. But whatever may be the truth in regard to these conjectures, it is quite certain that at a subsequent period, an extensive commerce was carried on

the title of which stands at the head of this article, we shall here introduce a rapid sketch of the geographical and physical features of the country, adding from the same source brief notices concerning the character of its inhabitants, their history, and their intercourse and relations with foreign nations. All that we can state in the present article will be general; the more particular accounts of the several islands and their productions, and the different tribes of men and their "innumerable languages" must be reserved for future numbers.

The Indian archipelago embraces in length forty degrees of longitude, and in breadth thirty degrees of latitude; thus comprehending, with the intervening seas, an area of 4,500,000 geographical, or about 5,500,000 statute miles: it extends from the western extremity of the island of Sumatra, to the parallel of the Araoe islands; and from the parallel of 11° south to 19° north of the equator. "Its general position is between the great continental land of New Holland, and the most southern extremity of the continent of Asia. It is centrally situated with respect to all the great and civilized nations of Asia, and lies in the direct and inevitable route of the maritime intercourse between them. Its eastern extremity is within three days sail of China; its western not above three weeks sail from Arabia. Ten days sail carries a ship from China to the richest and most central portion of the archipelago, and not more than fifteen are required for a similar voyage from Hindostan. Taking a wider view of its geographical relations, it may be added, that the passage from Europe or America to the western extremity of the archipelago, may be readily performed in ninety days, and has been often done in less, and that the voyage from the west coast of America may be effected in little more than one half that time. Such are the extraordinary advantages of the geographical and local position of these fine countries."

The following short abstract of the topography will serve our present purpose. It contains three islands of the *first* degree in size; namely, Borneo, Sumatra, and New Guinea; of the *second* rank, it contains an island and a peninsula, namely, Java, and the Malay-an peninsula; of the *third* rank, it contains three, Celebes, Luconia, and Mindanao; and of the *fourth*, it contains at least sixteen, namely, Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, Chandana, Flores, Timur, Ceram, Booroe, Gilolo, Palawan, Negros, Samar, Mindoro, Panay, Leyte, and Zebu. Of the relative importance, value, and populousness of the different islands, the size is by no means a just criterion. Many valuable islands of small size are excluded from the preceding list; some of these may be noticed in the sequel. "The whole archipelago is arranged into *groups* or chains of islands, with here and there a great island intervening. The islands are upon the whole thickly strewed, which gives rise to innumerable straits and passages, which would occasion, from their intricacy a dangerous navigation, were the seas of the archipelago not distinguished, beyond all others, by the proximity of extensive tracts of land, by their pacific nature, and by the uniformity of the prevailing winds and currents."

Five portions of the ocean which encompass or intersect the different islands of the archipelago are of considerable extent, and tolerably free from islands. The *first* of these in extent is the China sea, which lies between Borneo and the Malay peninsula; the *second* is the Java sea; the *third* is that tract of waters called the Banda sea, lying between Celebes on one side, Booroe and Ceram on the other, and the chain of islands to the south, of which Timur and Timurlaut are the most conspicuous; the *fourth* is the clear tract of ocean named the sea of Celebes, lying between Celebes and Borneo to the south and west, and Mindanao and the Sooloo chain of isles to the north; the *fifth* and last is the basin formed by the Sooloo chain, Borneo, Palawan, the south-west

side of the Philippines, and Mindanao, usually known as the Mindoro or Sooloo sea.—The bay of Bengal and the Indian ocean, wash the western shores of the archipelago, the Pacific, its southern and eastern shores, and the China sea its northern. The western boundary of the archipelago is formed by the Malayan peninsula and Sumatra. The southern boundary is formed by a long chain of contiguous islands, the most singular which the physical form of the globe anywhere presents; it commences with Java, and terminates nearly with Timurlant, running in a strait line almost due east and west, in a course of 1600 geographical miles. The eastern boundary is more extensive, broken, and irregular than any of the rest; it is principally formed by the great island of Luconia. The northern barrier is formed by the great islands of Luconia, Palawan, and Borneo.

The whole archipelago lies within the tropics, and almost the whole of it, with the exception of the Philippines, is situated within ten degrees (on each side) of the equator. "There is necessarily a general uniformity in climate, in animal and vegetable productions, and of course, in the character of the different races of inhabitants. Notwithstanding this, a nearer acquaintance both with the country and its inhabitants, soon points out to us that there is much diversity in both, and we shall find that the whole is capable of being subdivided into *five* natural and well grounded divisions." We will notice each of these divisions, and nearly in the words of our author.

The *first*, comprehends the Malayan peninsula, Sumatra, Java, Bali, Lombok, and about two thirds of the western part of Borneo, up to the parallel of longitude 116° east. The animal and vegetable productions of this division are peculiar, and have a higher character of utility than those of the others; the soil is of superior fertility, and better suited for rearing vegetable food of the first quality. The civilized inhabitants have a general accordance in manners, language, and political institutions; they are far more

civilized than those of the other divisions, and have made considerable progress in arts, arms, and letters. Rice is their principal food, and is generally abundant.

The island of Celebes is the centre of the *second* division, which comprehends, besides that island itself, the smaller ones on its coast, as Bouton and Salayer, the whole chain of islands from the parallel of longitude 116° to 124° east, with the whole east coast of Borneo within the same limit, and up to about 3° of north latitude. The animal and vegetable productions, have generally a peculiar character, the soil is of an inferior quality to that of the last, and less suited to the rearing of rice of the first quality. In language, manners, and political institutions, the inhabitants agree remarkably among themselves, but differ widely from their western neighbors, and are inferior to them. Rice is their principal food, but it is not abundant; sago is occasionally used.

The *third* division differs in a most remarkable manner from all the rest. Its extent is from the parallel of longitude 124° to 130° east; and from south latitude 10° to latitude 2° north. The character of the monsoons is here reversed. The eastern monsoon, which is dry and moderate at the west, is here rainy and boisterous; the westerly monsoon, rough and wet in the two first divisions, is here dry and temperate. The greater number of the plants and animals of the two first divisions disappear in the third, where we have strange productions, in both kingdoms, unknown to any other parts of the world. This is the native country of the clove and nutmeg, and the only one in the world which produces them in perfection. For raising the better kinds of vegetable food, the soil is of inferior fertility. Rice is scarcely produced at all, and the staple food of the people is sago. In language, manners, and political institutions, the people agree among themselves, but differ essentially from all their neighbors. They are far inferior to the inhabitants of the first two divisions in civilization, in power, and in knowledge of the useful

arts. They have never acquired of themselves the use of letters.

The *fourth* is, of all the divisions, the least distinctly characterized; it extends from the parallel of 116° east longitude to about 128° , and from 4° to 10° north latitude, and includes the north-east angle of Borneo, the whole of Mindanao, and the Sooloo archipelago. The clove and nutmeg are indigenous, but of imperfect and inferior quality. Sago is very often used, but rice is the principal article of food. In civilization the inhabitants are superior to those of the third division, and inferior to those of the first, or even the second. Their language, manners, and institutions are peculiar, agreeing among themselves, and differing from those of all their neighbors.

The *fifth* and last division is the well-known group of the Philippines, extending from the parallel of 10° to 19° north latitude. A geographical situation so different from that of all the other countries of the archipelago, produces much relative difference in climate and production. This division is the only portion of the archipelago within the boisterous region of hurricanes, and this circumstance alone gives a peculiar character to the country. The soil is of eminent fertility, and rice is the food of the more civilized races. The manners, the political institutions, and above all, the language of the inhabitants, differ in genius and form from those of all the other divisions.

“Such,” says our author, are the particular characteristics of the different divisions of this great country. The more general features of the whole archipelago, and those distinctive marks which characterize it from other portions of the world, are easily enumerated. It has the common characters of other tropical countries,—heat, moisture, and luxuriant vegetation. It is throughout of a mountainous nature, and its principal mountains from one extremity to the other are volcanoes. It is very generally covered with deep forests of stupendous trees. The number

of grassy plains is very small, and there are no arid, sandy deserts. It is distinguished from every cluster of islands in the world, by the presence of periodical winds, and from all countries whatever by the peculiar character of these winds. The archipelago is the only country of Asia situated upon the equinoctial line, or very close to it. * * * The insularity of the whole region, the contiguity of the different islands, and the facility and rapidity of the navigation, are also prominent and characteristic features. The animal and vegetable productions of the archipelago either differ wholly from those of other countries, or are important varieties of them. In one quarter, even the principal article of food is such as man nowhere else subsists upon. The productions of the ocean are not less remarkable for abundance and variety than those of the land."

Two aboriginal races of human beings inhabit the Indian islands; these are "as different from each other as both are from all the rest of their species." Setting aside the minor divisions of the inhabitants, as the Javanese, Malays, Bugis, Balinese, &c., we shall confine our remarks to these two; the one of which may be described as a *brown-complexioned* people, with lank hair; and the other as a *black*, or rather *sooty-colored* race, with woolly or frizzled hair. Mr. Crawfurd thinks that these two races of men present, in their physical and moral character, a complete parallel with the *white* and *negro* races of the western world; and the first, he adds, have always displayed as eminent a relative superiority over the second, as the race of white men have over the negroes of the west.

The persons of the brown-colored tribes are short, squat, and robust. "Their medium height may be reckoned, for the men, about five feet two inches, and for the women, four feet eleven inches, which gives about four inches less than the average stature of Europeans. Their lower limbs are rather large and heavy, but not ill-formed. Their arms are rather fleshy

than muscular." The face is of a round form ; the mouth wide ; the teeth, when not discolored by art, very fine ; the chin is rather of a square form ; the angles of the lower jaw remarkably prominent ; the cheek-bones are high, and the cheek consequently rather hollow ; the nose is short and small, never prominent nor flat ; the eyes are small, and always black, as with other orientals. The complexion though usually brown, varies a little among the different tribes. The fairest races are generally towards the west, but some of them, as the Battaks of Sumatra, are upon the very equator. The Javanese, who live most comfortably, are among the darkest people of the archipelago ; the wretched Dayaks of Borneo are among the fairest. Compared to Europeans, Arabs, Persians, Tartars, Burmese, or Siamese, the Indian islanders must be considered as an ill-looking race of people. In color, *virgin gold* is their standard of perfection ; but their complexions are scarcely ever clear, and a blush is seldom seen upon their faces.

The sooty-colored race is a dwarf African negro ; and by the brown-complexioned tribes is designated the *Pua-pua* (Papua, or woolly haired) race. A full grown male brought from the mountains of Queda was found to be no more than four feet nine inches high. Among those brought from New Guinea and the adjacent islands, our author thinks he never saw any one that exceeded five feet in height. Besides their want of stature, they are of a spare and puny frame. The following distinction has been drawn between the Papuan and the African negro, by sir Everard Home ; speaking of the Papuan he says :— " His skin is of a lighter color, the woolly hair grows in small tufts, and each hair has a spiral twist. The forehead rises higher, and the hindhead is not so much cut off. The nose projects more from the face. The upper lip is longer and more prominent. The lower lip projects forward from the lower jaw, to such an extent that the chin forms no part of the face, the lower part of which is formed by the mouth." The

puny stature, and feeble frames of those who belong to this race, Mr. C. proceeds to remark, "cannot be ascribed to the poverty of their food or the hardships of their condition, for the lank-haired races living under circumstances equally precarious, have vigorous constitutions. Some islands they enjoy almost exclusively to themselves, yet they have in no instance risen above the most abject state of barbarism. Whenever they are encountered by the fairer races, they are hunted down like the wild animals of the forest, and driven to the mountains or fastnesses, incapable of resistance."

The question of the origin of these two different races, appears to our author to be one which is "far beyond the compass of human reason;" it is however, "one of such curious speculation and interest, that it cannot be passed over altogether in silence." The only connection in language, manners or customs, which exists between the inhabitants of the archipelago and any distant people, which cannot be satisfactorily ascertained, is that with the negro races of Madagascar. Mr. Crawford has "no hesitation in thinking, that the extraordinary coincidences in language and customs, which have been discovered between the people of the archipelago and those of Madagascar, originated with the former; every rational argument is in favor of this supposition, and none against it." He discusses this subject at some length, and then concludes, that these facts point at a connection of great antiquity, and lead him "distinctly to assert," that the connection which existed between the two countries, "originated in a state of society and manners different from what now exists, and took place long before the intercourse of the Hindoos, not to say the Arabs, with the Indian archipelago."

The limits of a single article forbid us to follow the historian of the archipelago, in his particular description of the intellectual endowments, social qualities, religious institutions, domestic ceremonies and familiar usages, games and amusements of the

natives. From the correspondence of gentlemen, some of whom have long resided in the islands and are well acquainted with them and their inhabitants, we hope to be able from time to time to lay before our readers interesting notices of the Indian islanders. We now proceed to notice very briefly the principal foreigners who have at various times come in and settled among them. These are Indians, Chinese, Arabs, Portuguese, Spaniards, Dutch, and English.

The *natives of Hindostan* are found chiefly in the western portion of the archipelago. By Europeans these are called Chulia; but by the natives Teling or *Kaling*, which is more correct. *Kalinga*, is the only country of India generally known to the islanders; and they give the name Kaling to those who come from that country. Between the Coromandel coast and the Indian islands, a commercial intercourse has existed from time immemorial. "A passion on the part of the Hindoos, in common with the rest of mankind, for the spices and other rare productions of the islands, gave rise to this commerce, which increased as the nations of the west improved in riches or civilization; for the trade of the people of Coromandel was the first link of that series of voyages, by which the productions of the archipelago were conducted even to the markets of Rome." Taking advantage of the westerly monsoon, these adventurers come annually to seek their fortunes in a country richer and far less occupied than their own. In their character, they are shrewd, supple, unwarlike, mendacious and avaricious; a large portion of them return to India, but a considerable one also colonizes and intermarries with the natives.

Of all foreigners, the *Chinese* are the most numerous in the archipelago. Their junks never fail to bring a large supply of emigrants, and the European trading ships frequently do the same—as many as 450 have been known to sail in a single ship. Many of these return to their own country, "and the first intention of every emigrant is probably to do so; but

circumstances detain a number of them in the islands who, intermarrying with the natives of the country, generate a race inferior in energy and spirit to the original settlers, but speaking the language, wearing the garb, professing the religion, and affecting the manners of the parent country. The Chinese settlers may be described as at once enterprising, keen, laborious, luxurious, sensual, debauched, and pusillanimous. They are most generally engaged in trade, in which they are equally speculative, expert, and judicious. Their superior intelligence and activity have placed in their hands the management of the public revenue, in almost every country of the archipelago, whether ruled by natives or Europeans; and of the traffic of the archipelago with the surrounding foreign states, almost the whole is conducted by them." The principal part of these settlers are in Java, Borneo, Singapore and Penang; but a few scattered families are to be found in every island where the people are in any manner civilized. Of these emigrants, sir Thomas Herbert has given, in the quaint language of his time, the following account:—"The Chyneses are no quarrellers, albeit voluptuous, venereous, costly in their sports; great gamesters, and in trading too subtle for young merchants; oftentimes so wedded to dicing, that, after they have lost their whole estate, wife and children are staked; yet in a little time, Jew-like, by gleaning here and there, they are able to redeem their loss; and if not at the day, wife and children are then sold in the market for most advantage."

The *Arabians* began at a very early period to trade to the archipelago; but these settlers are more considerable for their influence than for their numbers. In 1296, when Marco Polo visited Sumatra, he found many of the inhabitants of the coast converted to Mohammedanism. Arabian adventurers have settled in almost every part of the country; and of all who meet on this *common theatre*, the Arabs are the most ambitious and bigoted. They have a strength

of character which places them far above the natives ; and when not devoted to the service of the prophet, are wholly occupied with mercantile affairs. The genuine Arabs are spirited, fair, and adventurous merchants ; but they often intermarry with natives, and the mixed race is of a less favorable character.

Such are the *Asiatic strangers*, who at various times have visited the Indian archipelago. With regard to *Europeans*, three nations only, the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the Spaniards, have established a dominion of such extent and duration as to produce a material influence on the condition and character of the native inhabitants ; the Dutch and Spaniards are the only people who have colonized in the archipelago, or at least who now exist there as *colonists*. The British, at the present time, and under the government of the honorable the E. I. company, have a governor and *residents* at Singapore, Malacca, and Penang. "It is instructive," says our author, "to contemplate the difference which has characterized the policy pursued by European nations in these countries and in America, which became known to Europeans nearly about the same time. Avarice was the main spring of the policy with respect to both countries, but it took a different direction, and was differently modified according to the circumstances in which they found the nations which occupied them. The gold of America was soon exhausted ; the persecution of the natives which followed the search of it soon ceased ; the Americans had no rich commerce to prosecute ; their soil furnished no productions on which Europeans put an extraordinary estimate ; colonization was consequently early resorted to, and the prosperity of America has been comparatively great and progressive. The Indian islands, on the contrary, were found to have an industrious and commercial population, and to abound in highly prized commodities peculiar to themselves. The attainment of these commodities by *violent means*, and not the search for gold, became naturally the object of

the European adventurers of all nations. The prosecution of the same object has continued down to the latest period to actuate their policy; a *systematic injustice* which has, in every period of the European connection, generated a train of evils and misfortunes to the native inhabitants, of which no other portion of mankind has been so long the victim."

Of European nations, the *Portuguese* were the first who reached the Indian islands by way of the cape of Good Hope. Diego Lopez de Sequeira led on the enterprise; and, "if we except the *accidental* visits of Marco Polo, Mandeville, and others," may be looked upon "as the proper discoverer of the Indian archipelago." Malacca was wrested from the natives in 1511, and its immense riches were given up to plunder. During the 130 years the city remained in the possession of the Portuguese, it was 18 times besieged or blockaded; *six* times by its legitimate possessors, *seven* times by the king of Acheen, *thrice* by the Javanese, and *twice* by the Dutch. In 1521 a squadron of nine ships appeared in the Spice islands for the purpose of *taking possession of them* in the name of the king of Portugal. The "simple sovereigns" of the Moluccas received their treacherous guests with caresses, and contended for the honor of entertaining them. De Britto established himself in Ternate; and was soon astonished by the arrival of the companions of Magellan, who had reached the Moluccas in the course of *the first voyage round the world*. These he seized and imprisoned; and the natives no sooner knew Europeans, than they were presented with the odious spectacle of their hatreds and animosities. The first governor of the islands, "stirred up civil war," and even distributed rewards for the massacre of the unfortunate natives. For sixty years during which their dominion continued, "the same scenes of rapine and cruelty were exhibited. Kings were made and dethroned, executed and extirpated at the caprice of those petty tyrants of the Moluccas."

The *Dutch* intercourse with the people of the archipelago, did not commence until 1596; in which year, a fleet of four ships, after a voyage of ten long months, arrived at Bantam, then the principal trading port in the Indies, for those commodities which the habits of Europe demanded. The adventurers acted without judgment or moderation, in their intercourse with the natives. At Bantam they embroiled themselves with the inhabitants, and committed actual hostilities. At Sädayu, "they committed a horrible massacre, and at Madura a still more atrocious one, in which the prince of that country and his family, coming to visit a Dutch fleet in a friendly manner, lost their lives through the suspicious timidity of these strangers." The early period of the Dutch history, "consists in a compilation of their commercial transactions, their wars with the Spaniards and Portuguese, their broils with the English, and their aggressions upon the natives." We might follow our author through many pages of similar narrative, but we have no heart to do it, and we desist from the task. At the present time, the Dutch have possessions in Java, Amboyna, and Macassar; and their countrymen at home in concert with a few in the east, as in former times, are making laudable efforts for the improvement of the islanders; and we hope their success will be equal to the opportunities they enjoy.

Of the *Spanish* possessions, which are confined to the Philippines, we have already spoken in another article, and shall not here resume the subject further than to quote one short paragraph from the work before us. "It is remarkable," says Mr. Crawford, "that the Indian administration of one of the worst governments of Europe, and that in which the general principles of legislation and good government are least understood, one too which has never been skillfully executed, should, upon the whole, have proved the *least injurious* to the native inhabitants of the country. This, undoubtedly has been the char-

acter of the Spanish connection with the Philippines, with all its vices, follies, and illiberalities ; and the present condition of these islands affords an unquestionable proof of this fact. Almost every other country of the archipelago is, at this day, in point of wealth, power, and civilization, in a worse state than when Europeans connected themselves with them, three centuries back. The Philippines alone, have improved in civilization, wealth, and populousness."

We have now brought into review all the topics which we proposed to notice in this article. We shall conclude it by adding, in the form of a chronological table, brief notices of the principal events in the history of the archipelago, whether native or European. Our limits will not allow us to give the table entire as it stands in the volumes of Mr. Crawford ; we select only the most important and interesting particulars.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

Of the principal events in the history of the Indian Archipelago.

- 1160, A. D. A MALAYAN colony, first from the original country of that people, and latterly from Palembang in Sumatra, settles at the extremity of the Malayan peninsula, and founds the city of Singhapura, (Singapore).
1252. The king of Java invades Singhapura, and drives the Malays from thence, who, proceeding further westward, found the city of Malacca.
1276. Sultan Mohammed Shah ascends the throne of Malacca, and embraces Mohammedanism.
1304. The Javanese and Malays visit the island of Ternate for cloves, and many of them settle there, and are soon followed by Arabians.
1340. The king of Malacca engages in a war with Siam, whose sovereign is killed in a battle which ensues.
1350. An Arabian adventurer instructs the king of Ternate in Arabic, and in the art of ship-building.
1391. An unsuccessful attempt to convert the Javanese to Mohammedanism is made by a rajah.
1465. Javanese, Malays, and also Chinese, in great numbers, frequent Ternate in quest of cloves.
1478. The Mohammedan religion established in Java ; and shortly after, the people of the western end of the same island, of the Sundas, converted to Mohammedanism.

1495. The king of Ternate, embraces the Mohammedan religion, and visits Java to receive instruction in that faith.
1509. A Portuguese squadron of four ships, under the command of Diogo Lopes de Siqueira, reaches the Indian archipelago.
1511. The renowned Alphonzo Albuquerque, viceroy of the Indies, with a fleet of nineteen ships, and fourteen hundred men, conquers Malacca, and sends a squadron under Diogo de Abreu for the discovery of the Moluecas; he touches only at Amboyna and returns with a cargo of cloves.
1512. The Portuguese permitted to settle in the Celebes, where they find some of the inhabitants converted to Mohammedanism.
1521. The Spaniards, conducted by Magellan, arrive in the Moluecas by the straits bearing his name. That great navigator is killed in an affray with the people of the little isle of Maktan, one of the Philippines.
1523. The king of Acheen besieges the fortress of Passe, the Portuguese garrison of which, after a gallant defense, take flight, which puts an end to the Portuguese dominion in Sumatra.

The king of Bintan invests Malacca with a fleet and army, the former under the command of the celebrated Laksimana; Alphonzo de Sousa arrives and relieves the city, sails for Pahang, where he destroys all the merchant vessels, kills six thousand persons, and takes prisoners in such numbers as to afford every Portuguese *six slaves*.

1526. The Spaniards form their first establishment in the Moluecas, on the report of the companions of Magellan.
1530. Gonçalvo Pereira, as governor of the Moluecas, sails for those islands, touches at one of the ports of Borneo, where he makes commercial arrangements with the king.
1531. The kings of Gilolo, the Papuas, and the princes of the Moluecas, join in a league to exterminate the Portuguese, who are blockaded and confined until the arrival of the new governor, the heroic Galvan. To save the effusion of blood, Galvan proposes to the kings of Gilolo and Baehian to meet each of them in single combat, which they accept, but the meeting is prevented and peace concluded.
1537. The king of Ternate, sent to India, is there converted to Christianity, and sent back to be reinstated in his kingdom, but dies at Malacca on his way to the Moluecas.
- Galvan employs himself zealously in converting the islanders to Christianity, institutes a seminary for religious education, which was approved of by the council of Trent; and, after making himself beloved to such a degree as to cause the inhabitants of the Moluecas to propose making him their king, is superseded in his government: during his rule, Christianity made rapid progress in the Moluecas and spread to Celebes and Mindanao.
1547. Francis Xavier, 'the apostle of the Indies,' makes his appearance at Malacca, and the Portuguese ascribe to his presence the salvation of the place from a formidable attack of the king of Acheen, who came against it with a fleet of seventy large gal-

- lies and an army of a hundred thousand men, among whom there were five hundred Turkish janissaries. Two years after this, Xavier propagates Christianity in the Moluccas.
1565. Mignel Lopez de Legaspi, in the reign of Philip II. of Spain, takes nominal possession of the Philippines.
1571. Manila founded by the Spaniards, and three years after, attacked and nearly taken by the Chinese rover, 'Limahon.'
- 1578, Nov. 14th. The English, under sir Francis Drake, make their first appearance in the archipelago, touching at Ternate and Java.
1581. The king of Ternate captures the Portuguese fortress and puts an end to their dominion in that island. The kingdom of Portugal being united to that of Spain, its Indian dominions fall under the power of the latter.
1586. There is a great eruption from the volcanic range of mountains in the islands at the eastern end of Java.
1588. Thomas Cavendish, in his circumnavigation of the globe, touches at Java.
1590. The emperor of Japan sends a mission to the Philippines; the king of Camboja does the same, and begs the governor, Dasmariñas, to assist him against the king of Siam.
1593. The governor of the Philippines, having sailed against the Moluccas, his fleet is dispersed, and he is murdered by the mutiny of the Chinese part of his crew, who had been cruelly used by the Spaniards.
1596. The Dutch, under Hautman, arrive in Java, and the prince of Madura and his family are massacred by them while paying a visit of ceremony on board of Hautman's fleet.
1600. The Dutch visit Acheen; and the next year the king sends two ambassadors to Holland, one of whom dies there, but the other returns in safety. *Tobacco* is introduced into Java.
1602. The emperor of Japan sends another embassy to the governor of the Philippines, requesting a continuation of the commercial intercourse between Japan and those islands, and also that some Spanish shipwrights might be sent to him.
1603. The emperor of China sends an embassy to Manila to ascertain the truth of a report that had reached him, that the port of Cavité was formed of *gold*. The Chinese of the Philippines shortly after this, revolt against the Spaniards, and after a long resistance, are exterminated to the number of twenty-three thousand. The emperor sends a mission to inquire concerning the murder of his *countrymen*, is satisfied with the explanation afforded by the governor, and the commercial intercourse goes on as formerly.
1605. Dadu ri Bandang, a native of the Malayan kingdom of Menangkabao, converts the kings of Goa and Tallo in Celebes, by whose influence the Mohammedan religion is accepted by all the *Macassar* states. The next year the Macassars force the people of Boni, and the Waju nations, to adopt the Mohammedan religion.

1611. Peter Both, a Dutch governor-general, arrives at Java; enters into a treaty with the king of Jacatra, by which the Dutch are allowed to build a fort, and establish a factory.
1613. King James I. of England sends a letter and presents to the king of Acheen; who writes a friendly answer to his Britannic majesty, and requests to have one of his '*country women to wife*,' promising to make her son king of the pepper countries.
1619. Coen attacks and destroys the town of Jacatra, and the name of *Bataria* is given to the Dutch fort of that place.
1620. The Dutch and English East India companies having entered into treaty, the former propose the reduction of the Banda isles as a joint enterprise, which the latter decline, declaring their want of means to be the sole reason. The Dutch by themselves achieve the conquest of those isles.
1621. The French make their first appearance in the archipelago, carrying a letter and presents from the king of France to the king of Acheen.
1623. The Dutch pretending to have discovered a plot of the English and their Japanese soldiers to seize the fort of Amboyna, put the supposed conspirators to the torture, and execute them upon their confession on the rack.
1624. The Dutch commence hostilities against the inhabitants of the Moluccas, for *selling their cloves to other strangers*.
1625. The Spaniards make a settlement on the east side of Formosa, and are successful in converting the native inhabitants to Christianity.
1626. An expedition sails from the Philippines against the Dutch establishment in Formosa, but returns without reaching the place. Another expedition fitted out against the Dutch commerce; it sails to Siam, where the Dutch being protected by the king of that country, the Spanish commander burns their junks, and takes prisoners the Siamese mission, proceeding on its annual voyage to China.
1629. The king of Siam sends an embassy to Manila, claiming redress for the ravages committed by the Spaniards in the Siamese port and the seizure of the ambassador proceeding to China. The king of Camboja sends a mission to the Philippines, claiming the assistance of the Spaniards against the king of Siam, and requesting shipwrights, who are sent to him.
1636. Antony Van Diemen, governor-general of the Dutch Indies. The next year the governor of the Philippines, sails against Sooloo and Mindanao, and after an obstinate struggle, reduces them, but is soon obliged to recall his garrison and abandon his conquests.
1639. The Chinese in the Philippines, now amounting to thirty thousand men, revolt against the Spanish authority; being attacked by a military force they are driven from post to post, and at length yield, after their number has been reduced to seven thousand.

1640. The Portuguese settlements in India are separated from those of Spain, by the rise of the duke of Braganza to the independent throne of Portugal.
1642. Malacca is taken by the Dutch after a siege and blockade of five months. Their having established themselves in Formosa, occasions great consternation among the Spaniards at Manila.
1643. A truce of ten years for India is concluded between the Dutch and Portuguese. Tasman discovers New Zealand and Van Diemen's Land.
1645. A succession of earthquakes takes place during sixty days in the Philippine islands, when Manila is entirely destroyed, and many lives lost.
1649. The sultan of Mataram issues an order to his subjects, *enjoining all the men to marry each two wives.*
1652. The king of Teruata is carried off to Batavia by the Dutch, and compelled to sign a treaty, agreeing to *destroy all the cloves* in his dominions. Vlaming, the governor of Amboyna, executes more than twenty of the nobles of the Moluccas by breaking some on the wheel and strangling or drowning others.
1653. Corrolat, king of Mindanao, puts to death two Jesuits, and other Spaniards sent to him as ambassadors from Manila.
1660. A *copper currency* is established for *tin coin* by order of the sultan of Mataram.
1662. Koxinga (Ching-ching-kung), having taken Formosa from the Dutch, sends a mission to Manila, requesting the payment of tribute, and his acknowledgment as sovereign of the Philippines, in consequence of which the governor directs all the Chinese to quit the islands. But the death of Koxinga frees them from the danger of a Chinese invasion.
1666. The Dutch send a great force, under admiral Speelman, for the conquest of Macassar.
1669. The treaty between the Macassars and Dutch is broken and war renewed.
1671. A violent earthquake takes place at Amboyna, another occurs in 1673, and another in 1674.
1683. The king of Bantam grants to the Dutch the exclusive trade in pepper, and the *monopoly* of the sale of cotton goods in his dominions, and expels the Danes and English.
1684. The English send an embassy from Madras to Acheen, requesting permission to build a factory, which is peremptorily refused. The next year they establish their factory at Bencoolen.
1687. The Dutch, on the call of the king of Bantam, attack Suecadana and conquer it, making the English who are found there prisoners.
1699. Surapati attempts the conquest of the province of Pronorogo in Java, and is defeated.
1705. The Dutch general, De Wilde, takes the field with an army of eight thousand Europeans, and seven thousand Javanese and Madurese, and the army of the Susunan is defeated.

1706. The Dutch again take the field against the dethroned Susunan and Surapati; the latter flies, after receiving a wound of which he dies.
1708. The Dutch make offers to the Susunan, who surrenders himself on assurance of grace; he is sent to Batavia, and then banished to Ceylon, where he dies.
1709. The Chinese are banished from Manila, under the pretext of carrying off the public wealth.
1710. The Spaniards attempt the conversion of the Pelew islanders; but the priests sent thither with that view were never heard of after landing.
1713. The Dutch banish the king of Tambora in Sumbawa to the cape of Good Hope.
1717. The governor of the Philippines sends a mission to Siam, to cultivate friendly and commercial relations with that country, and the Spaniards obtain liberty to establish a factory; but a ship of Siam having, in the mean time, come to Manila, and the crew being ill used by the Spaniards, the effects of the mission are frustrated.
1719. The natives of Sumatra, irritated by the misconduct of the agents of the English East India company, rise upon the Europeans at Bencoolen, and the garrison abandons the fort; but the natives alarmed by the encroachments of the Dutch, invite the English to come back, and they return accordingly.
1723. The culture of *coffee* is introduced into Java by the Dutch governor-general Zwarderkroon.
1739. The English admiral, Anson, captures the Acapulco galleon, with a million and a half of dollars in silver specie.
1740. The Chinese, to the number of ten thousand, are massacred at Batavia by the Dutch, on suspicion of conspiracy.
1741. The Dutch governor-general is arrested and put on trial for the massacre of the Chinese. The same year the Chinese join the Susunan in a league to exterminate the Dutch; they capture a fortress at Cartasura, and put to death the European officers who had surrendered by capitulation; they then march to Samarang, lay siege to the Dutch fort, but are finally defeated. The Susunan forsakes his alliance with the Chinese, of whom he massacres a number and then joins the Dutch. The Chinese retreat into the interior of Java, and raise to the throne a prince of the house of Mataram. The Dutch, on the 29th of November, celebrate their triumph over the Chinese, by a public thanksgiving at Batavia.
1742. The Chinese attack Cartasura, and have several engagements with the Dutch troops.
1743. The Chinese disperse, and Kuning their prince, surrendering himself to the Dutch, is banished to Ceylon.
1747. A royal order arrives at Manila for the final expulsion of the Chinese, the execution of which is suspended.
1748. The Dutch East India company install the Prince of Orange as supreme director and governor-general of the Indies.

1755. The Spaniards of the Philippines, under the priest Ducos, are successful in checking the inroads of the neighboring native states.
1757. The Chinese are finally expelled from the Philippines, in conformity to the royal edict, and the *temporary* residence of the traders from China only tolerated.
1760. The French destroy the whole of the English settlements on the west coast of Sumatra.
1762. The British, on the 22d of September, arrive at the Philippines, with a military and naval force, and demand the surrender of the islands, which being refused, they commence military operations. On the 5th of October, they storm the fortifications of Manila, and carry the town. The military commander, Senor Anda, retires from Manila, and maintains the authority of the king of Spain, so that the British authority never extends much beyond the confines of Manila. The Chinese, who in the course of three years, had increased to prodigious numbers in the Philippines, all join the English and commit great excesses; and Senor Anda orders all the Chinese on the islands to be hanged, which order is very generally carried into effect.
1763. The British settlements on the west coast of Sumatra are re-established; and that at Beneoolen, or fort Marlborough, is erected into an independent presidency. The English deliver over Manila to the Spaniards.
1785. The English establish a settlement on Penang, or the Prince of Wales' island.
1795. The British capture Malacca and its dependencies.
1811. The Dutch colonies of the Indian archipelago, following the fate of the mother country, become a portion of the French empire, and Janssens is appointed governor-general. The British, August 4th, land a force on Java, and on the 10th, take possession of Batavia, drive the Dutch and French troops from the cantonments of Weltevrieden, and on the 26th, storm and take the entrenched position of the enemy at Cornelis. Janssens, having retreated to the eastern part of Java, is defeated near Samarang, and on the 18th of September, he capitulates with the British authorities for the surrender of Java and the other Dutch possessions. The Dutch possessions in the Celebes are transferred to the British.
1812. Banea and Billiton ceded to the British. The sultan of Java is made prisoner, and his son is placed on the throne, who cedes to the British government the provinces of Kadu, Blora, Jipang, Japan, and Garobagan.
1813. The British government of Java, under the direction of sir Stamford Raffles, effects a number of beneficial changes, commercial, fiscal, and judicial.
- 1813, August 19. Java is ceded by treaty to the Dutch, and is taken possession of by them.
1818. The settlement of Singapore commenced. "The rapid rise of this important station," says a correspondent of the

marquis of Lansdowne, in a letter dated April 15th, 1820, "during the year that it has been in our possession, is perhaps without its parallel. When I hoisted the British flag, the population scarcely amounted to 200 souls; in three months the number was not less than 3,000; and it now exceeds 10,000, principally Chinese."

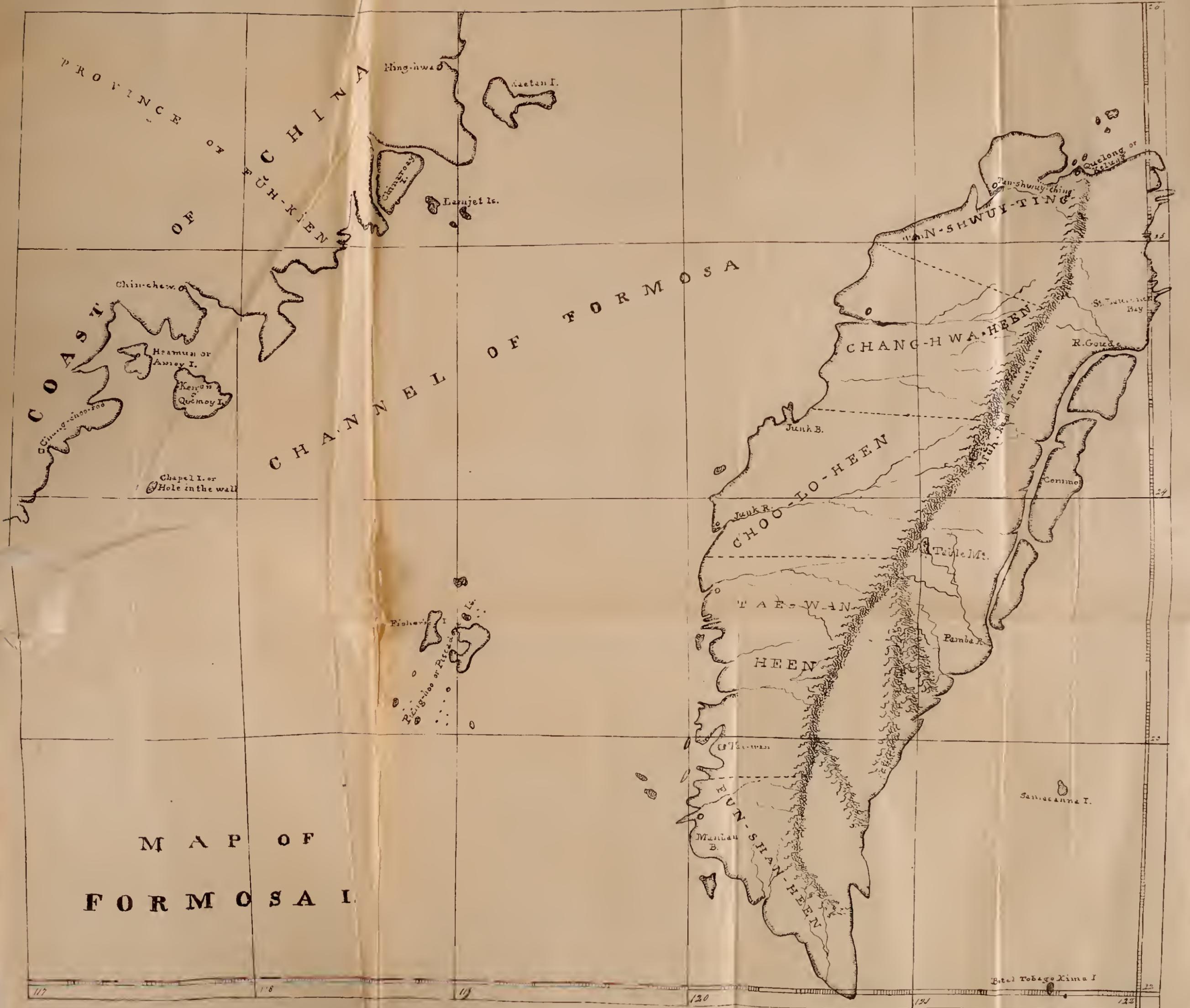
1825. The sovereignty and property of Singapore, in their present extent, confirmed to the British government, by a convention with the king of the Netherlands, and a treaty with the Malay princes of Jchore, to whom it belonged.

MISCELLANIES.

FORMOSA. *Its situation and extent; discovery by the Chinese; occupation by the Dutch; their government there, and expulsion by the pirate Koxinga; its cession to the Chinese; present government and divisions; the late rebellion; its aboriginal inhabitants; productions and population.*

Formosa, "the beautiful island," as named by the Portuguese, has been recalled to notice by the recent insurrections there, and by the prospect that it may be destined hereafter to attract more the attention of foreigners. The Chinese name is *Tae-wan*, which signifies Terrace bay. Its intrinsic and relative importance will justify us in recalling a portion of its history, and in exhibiting a brief description of the island. Its length which is greatest from north to south, includes more than three degrees of latitude; its breadth, which at most is about 80 miles, is much narrowed towards each extremity. The south-east point of Formosa, according to one authority is in latitude $22^{\circ} 6' N.$; but by the observations of La Perouse and Broughton compared with the Dutch, it is $21^{\circ} 53' 30'' N.$ lat., and in longitude $120^{\circ} 57' E.$ Ke-lung, the most northern point, is $25^{\circ} 16' N.$ and $121^{\circ} 4' 3'' E.$ from Greenwich. The channel which separates *Tae-wan* from the Chinese coast, is from 75 to 120 miles in breadth; in which, and about 25 miles from the island, lie the *Pang-hoo* or *Peseadore* islands. They afford good harbors, and were long the resort of Chinese pirates, and of the Dutch, who from this secure station could easily command the passages on both sides.

Though lying opposite to the Chinese coast, and within one day's sail of the port of Amoy, yet Formosa does not appear to have attracted the notice of the Chinese government till a modern date. According to their history, they had no knowledge of it till 1430, A. D. in the reign of *Seuen-tzung*, the fifth emperor of the Ming dynasty, when an officer of the court was driven by storm upon the island. More than a century later, a pirate, who had been driven with his fleet from the *Pang-hoo* isles by a Chinese



PROVINCE OF FUCHIEN

CHINA

COAST

CHANNEL OF FORMOSA

WAN-SHWUY-TING

CHANG-HWA-HEEN

CHOO-LO-HEEN

TAE-WAN HEEN

HUN-SHAN-HEEN

MAP OF FORMOSA I.

Hing-hwa
Kaetan I.
Ching-ross I.
Lanjet Is.

Chin-chew I.
Heamua or Amoy I.
Keelun Quimoy I.
Chung-choo-foo
Chapel I. or Hole in the wall

Fisher I.
Pang-hoo or Pica I.

Tan-shun-y-ching
Quilong or Pelung
St. Paul's Bay
R. Goude
Junk B.
Junk R.
Table Mt.
Pamba R.
Santacana I.
Mantau B.
Batal Tobago Kima I.

squadron, took refuge on Formosa. The island was then uncultivated, and inhabited only by savages. The pirate, who was an ambitious man, seized upon the island for himself, and the better to fit it for his purposes, massacred all the inhabitants that fell into his hands, smearing his vessels with the blood of the unfortunate natives. In some such way, doubtless, many Chinese must have gone over to 'Tae-wan' before its occupation by the Dutch, which we now proceed to relate.

The early voyages of the Hollanders to the East Indies, says Burney in his voyages, were projected by individuals or different companies, and were prosecuted with the spirit of reckless adventurers. The Dutch East India company was established in 1602. Nowhere was the mutual enmity of the Dutch and Portuguese more actively displayed than in these Indian seas, where commercial jealousy was superadded to many other causes of animosity. Soon after the formation of their company, the Dutch began to contend with the Portuguese for the Chinese trade. The Portuguese successfully opposing their designs, the former in return besieged Macao in 1622, from which however they were repulsed with much loss. From the tenure by which the Portuguese hold Macao, the Chinese regarded this attack as an act of hostility against themselves. But the Dutch accused them of aiding the Portuguese, and alledged as just cause of complaint, that they were admitted to trade on a fairer footing than themselves. Frustrated in their designs on Macao, they therefore sailed for the Pang-hoo islands. The Chinese having no sufficient force there, the Dutch took possession of them, and began a fort, to forward which, many Chinese crews were condemned to labor. Of 1500 workmen thus employed, it is related, that 1300 died in the progress of the building; "for they seldom had more than half a pound of rice for a day's allowance." The Dutch pleaded in vindication, the cruel usage received by their countrymen, who had been imprisoned by the Chinese.

This establishment of the Dutch annoyed all parties;—the Spanish, by rendering dangerous the commerce between Manila and China; the Portuguese, by interrupting the trade between Macao and Japan; and to the Chinese it was "an incessant and intolerable grievance," who therefore commenced negotiations. The emperor required the preliminary step of their withdrawing from the islands; the Dutch claimed "nothing more than liberty of commerce with China, and the prohibition of it between the Chinese and the Spaniards in Manila;" nothing therefore was effected, and the Dutch recurred to their former means of *persuasion*. Eight ships were dispatched at one time to scour the sea and destroy whatever they could seize along the Chinese coast. Negotiations were resumed, and the Chinese promised that if the Dutch would withdraw from the Pang-hoo islands they might fortify themselves upon Formosa without reprehension;—a reasonable permission, no doubt, from them who had no right to the islands. In the year 1624, the Dutch concluded peace with the

Chinese, by which liberty of commerce was granted them. They on their part evacuated the islands, sailed to Formosa, and took possession of a harbor on the south-western side. The best entrance to it was narrow and shoal, there being at high water no more than thirteen feet.

Thus the Dutch entered upon Formosa; a small Japanese colony then resident there, soon retired, and the natives offered no opposition. To defend their new establishment, a fort and batteries were built, which protected the principal harbor, *Ta-keang*; this fort was named fort Zeeland. For the defense of the trade between China and Manila, the Spanish governor of the Philippine islands fortified the port of Ke-lung, in 1626; from which, however the Spaniards were subsequently expelled by the Dutch. Thirty miles from this harbor, on the western shore, another settlement was formed, called Tan-shwuy. Yet the jurisdiction of the Dutch extended little beyond the towns and villages in the neighborhood of their principal fort. In these they wisely combined the Dutch and native authority; "they introduced new laws among them, and instead of their councils of elders, constituted one of their chief men supervisor in every village, who administered justice, and was accountable to the governor of the island." The natives in these districts were reclaimed from many barbarous customs, and became attached to the government of the Dutch.

In 1626, George Candidius, a protestant divine, was appointed minister to the settlement; and he took great pains to introduce Christianity among the natives. At the governor's request, he gave his opinion on the prospects of propagating the gospel in Formosa. He considered both the dispositions and circumstances of the people favorable for their conversion to Christianity. "With good capacities, they were ignorant of letters; their superstitions rested only on tradition, or customs to which they were not strongly attached, and which had been almost totally changed within the last sixty years: no obstacles were to be apprehended from their government. God blessed his labors in Formosa, so that during a residence of sixteen months, part of which was occupied in studying the language, he instructed 120 of the natives in the Christian religion." The number of Christians, it is said, daily augmented; the intermarriage of Dutch and natives was practiced; churches and schools were multiplied, so that in all, many thousands of the islanders were converted to Christianity and baptized. "But the Dutch governors in India were cautious of encouraging the conversion of the Formosans, lest it should give offense to the Japanese, with whom they had commerce, and by whom Christianity was then heavily persecuted." Thus as often elsewhere the interests of true religion were sacrificed upon the altar of mammon, and the knowledge of salvation withheld for money.

The whole interval of Dutch authority in Formosa was a period fraught with calamity to China, both from the scourge of civil war and foreign invasion. In 1644, the Mantchou Tartars had gained

the capital, Peking, and the Tartar chief was acknowledged as emperor of China, by most of the northern provinces. At the close of the next year, twelve of the fifteen provinces had submitted to the usurper. Throughout the whole course of this long war, the Chinese were emigrating to other countries to escape the miseries of their own. Early in the struggle, 25,000 families are said to have transported themselves to Formosa. The industry of these strangers gave the island a cultivated appearance, and increased the produce of rice and sugar for exportation. At first the Dutch encouraged this immigration, and at length were unable to prevent it; which influx of foreigners aided in the final overthrow of the Dutch dominion in the island. But the unexpected and unheard of result, that of Europeans being defeated in contest with the Chinese, will excuse a minute description, and demands a brief retracing of some previous events.

These calamitous and turbulent days produced in China, as ever elsewhere, some daring spirits, who rode upon the storm, and whose names are well known in the history of those times. None of these was more remarkable than the half piratical, half patriotic naval chief, *Ching-ching-kung*, better known as Koxinga. His father was once a servant of the Portuguese at Macao, and was instructed in the Christian religion, and baptized by the name of Nicholas. From a petty trader, he grew by foreign trade to be the richest merchant in China; and afterwards equipped, at his own expense, a small fleet against the Tartars. His success gradually drew around him a vast number of Chinese vessels, till he became the commander of as formidable a fleet as ever sailed these seas. But after many battles, the Tartar chief invited him to court, and offered him the dignity of king, which he accepted, leaving the command of the fleet to his son Koxinga, while himself was doomed to perpetual imprisonment at Peking. Koxinga, with more than his father's valor, opposed the usurper, and continued faithful to his country. During several years, he scoured the seas with his formidable fleet, descended upon the coast, and with the aid of a land force, retook some cities and defeated the enemy in several engagements. But in three or four years the Tartars by force and bribes recovered all, and drove him from the coast to the numerous islands which line the shore. In this state of affairs, the large and fertile island of Formosa became the object on which the exiled chieftain rested his last hopes. The Dutch foresaw the danger; they were aware that the agents of Koxinga held secret correspondence with the resident Chinese; and the garrison at fort Zealand was accordingly increased in 1650. For several succeeding years, there was no open hostility, and Koxinga being fully employed against the Tartars, neglected Formosa; yet dissatisfaction was mutually increasing between the Dutch and the chief. But after his severe defeat in the siege of Nanking, he had no resource left but to obtain the island; his followers were dispersing to procure subsistence, and his fleet could not be kept together. He now began in earnest to look at the "beautiful isle."

The Dutch also increased their vigilance; took some of the most considerable emigrants as hostages, arrested and tortured others who were suspected. At the earnest request of Coyet, governor of Formosa, 12 ships were dispatched from Batavia in 1660, with large reinforcements, and orders that if the alarm at Formosa proved groundless, the fleet should proceed against Macao. The garrison at Tae-wan now consisted of 1500 men, a force which the admiral thought superior to any number whatever of Chinese troops. A categorical answer was demanded of Koxinga, "whether he was for peace or war." The wily chief replied by letter, that "he had not the least thought of war against the company." To remove suspicion, he sent several merchant ships to Tae-wan; but as he still continued his vast preparations for war in his strong hold at Hea-mun (Amoy) and Ke-mun, the governor's suspicions were not removed. The majority of his council however, were of opinion that there was no present danger, and all the ships were therefore ordered away to their respective places. The admiral returned to Batavia and accused the governor of unreasonable apprehensions. The council, wearied with the expenses, and with the false alarms of the governor for several years, suspended him from all office and ordered him to Batavia to defend himself. M. Clenk his successor sailed for Formosa in June, 1661.

Widely different from these conjectures were the events then passing at the island. No sooner had the Dutch fleet departed, than Koxinga, and his forces were in motion. He embarked 20,000, or 25,000 of his best troops in a great number of vessels, and appeared before fort Zealand, and assisted by thousands of his countrymen on shore, began to land. He first stationed a number of his vessels between fort Zealand and fort Province on the opposite side of the entrance, and occupied with his forces a point which would cut off the communication between the forts. The governor seeing this, ordered out 240 men to dislodge the enemy from this post. Here was the first trial of their strength. By the time of their coming up, 4000 Chinese had already occupied the place; but so confident were the Dutch that the enemy would not stand the fire, that they immediately attacked them. "But so far were the Chinese from giving ground, that they returned the fire with musketry and arrows, and sent a detachment to attack us in the flanks. This alarmed the soldiers, who threw down their arms and fled, leaving the captain and 19 men to the mercy of the enemy. One half only of their company reached the fort alive. Nor was the defense by sea any better. The four ships in port attacked the junks, and sunk a few; but one of the four was burned by the Chinese fire ships, and the rest escaped from the harbor, to which they all returned again, but one which sailed away for Batavia." By passing around the Philippines, she reached Batavia in 53 days; the first instance of a passage down against the monsoon. The Chinese landed without any further opposition, and in four hours' time cut off all communication between the forts, and also between fort Zealand and the open

country. Koxinga now summoned the fort, threatening to put all to fire and sword, if they did not surrender immediately.

A consultation was immediately held, and it was agreed to send deputies to Koxinga, offering to surrender fort Province rather than to lose all. They went to his camp, then consisting of about 12,000 men who were besieging fort Province. They were armed with three different sorts of weapons; the first, of bows and arrows; the second, of cut-throats and targets only; and the third, of backswords and pikes, three or four feet long, with broad pointed irons at the ends. The deputies were conducted into a spacious tent, where they waited till Koxinga was at leisure. He meanwhile was employed in combing his black, shining hair, a great ornament among the Chinese. "This done, they were introduced into his tent, all hung with blue; he himself was seated in an elbow chair behind a four square table; round about him attended all the chief commanders, clad in long robes, without arms, and in great silence, with a most awful countenance." Koxinga replied; that "Formosa had always belonged to China, and now the Chinese wanted it, the foreigners must quit the island immediately. If not, let them only hoist the red flag." Next morning the red flag waved over fort Zealand, but fort Province was surrendered, with all its garrison and cannon.

To prepare for a more vigorous defense, all the men able to bear arms were taken into the fort, and the city set on fire, but not so effectually as to prevent the Chinese from preserving many of the buildings, which afforded them a shelter. They also brought up thither 28 cannon to bear against the fort; but they were so galled by the fire of the Dutch that the streets were covered with the slain, and the besieged making a successful sally, spiked the enemy's guns. Koxinga now finding all his attacks fruitless, began a close blockade, and meanwhile made the open country feel his rage. He made the Dutch, especially the ministers and schoolmasters, prisoners, because they were suspected of secretly encouraging their parishioners to kill the Chinese residing among them; some were crucified by the Chinese, and their crosses erected in their respective villages. One individual event of this kind as related by Nieuhoff, is so Regulus-like that we present it entire to the reader.

"Among the Dutch prisoners taken in the country, was one Mr. Hambrocock, a minister. This man was sent by Koxinga to the governor, to propose terms for surrendering the fort; but in case of refusal, vengeance would be taken on the Dutch prisoners. Mr. Hambrocock came into the castle, being forced to leave his wife and children behind him as hostages, which sufficiently proved that if he failed in his negociation, they had nothing but death to expect from the chieftain. Yet was he so far from persuading the garrison to surrender, that he encouraged them to a brave defense by hopes of relief, assuring them that Koxinga had lost many of his best ships and soldiers, and began to be weary of the siege. When he had ended, the council of war left it to his

choice to stay with them or return to the camp, where he could expect nothing but present death; every one entreated him to stay. He had two daughters within the castle, who hung upon his neck, overwhelmed with grief and tears, to see their father ready to go where they knew he must be sacrificed by the merciless enemy. But he represented to them that having left his wife and two other children in the camp as hostages, nothing but death could attend them if he returned not: so unlocking himself from his daughters' arms, and exhorting every body to a resolute defense, he returned to the camp, telling them at parting, that he hoped he might prove serviceable to his poor fellow prisoners.

“Koxinga received his answer sternly; then causing it to be rumored that the prisoners excited the Formosans to rebel against him, he ordered all the Dutch male prisoners to be slain; this was accordingly done, some being beheaded, others killed in a more barbarous manner, to the number of 500, their bodies stripped quite naked, and buried 50 and 60 in a hole; nor were the women and children spared, many of them likewise being slain, though some of the best were preserved for the use of the commanders, and the rest sold to the common soldiers. Happy was she that fell to the lot of an unmarried man, being thereby freed from vexations by the Chinese women, who are very jealous of their husbands. Among the slain were Messrs. Hambrocock, Mus, and Winshain, clergymen, and many schoolmasters, who were all beheaded.” Thus ended that tragical scene.

Two days after the council at Batavia had censured Coyet for his fears and had dispatched his successor Clenk to Formosa, the Maria arrived with the news from Formosa. They immediately revoked the censure and suspension, and fitted out 10 ships with 700 soldiers for the island; but Clenk arrived first off Tae-wan, where instead of the rich and peaceful station he had flattered himself with obtaining, he saw the red flag flying, and hundreds of Chinese vessels lying in the northern roads. He anchored in the southern, sent his dispatches ashore, did not land himself, but sailed for Japan and was heard of no more at Formosa. Soon the succors from Batavia arrived, and the besieged began to act on the offensive. They were unsuccessful however in attempting to dislodge the enemy from the city of Zelandia, and suffered the loss of two ships and many men, in the attempt; the garrisons were now ordered from the two northern ports, Kelung and Tanshwuy, to increase the force of the besieged. “The women and children and other useless persons were also sent to Batavia.” These preparations checked the approaches of Koxinga for the present, which led to an injudicious act on the part of the besieged. The governor received letters from the viceroy of Fuh-keen, requesting his cooperation in expelling the remains of Koxinga's forces from the coast, and promising his whole aid afterwards to the Dutch at Formosa. Five ships were therefore dispatched for this purpose, but three were lost in a storm and the remainder returned to Batavia.

This act was just to the wish of Koxinga, and led the besieged to despair of holding out much longer. A deserter from the Dutch encouraged the besiegers, and directed them where to press the attack. They now assailed the fort from three near batteries, and notwithstanding opposition, after many assaults succeeded in making a breach, and gaining one of the redoubts, from whence they annoyed the Dutch, and seemed ready for a general assault through the breach. Then the besieged began to deliberate, and the majority of the council agreed that the fort was untenable. The governor yielded his opinion to the majority, surrendered the public property, but was allowed to embark their private property for Batavia in their only remaining ship. Thus after a siege of nine months, with the loss of 1600 men, the Dutch returned to Java; "where the governor and council of Formosa, after all the hazards and incredible hardships they had undergone, were imprisoned, their goods confiscated, and the governor condemned to perpetual banishment in one of the Banda isles," but was finally recalled by the Prince of Orange. Thus after thirty years duration ended the Dutch authority in Formosa, in 1662.

Freed from all opposers, Koxinga now distributed garrisons throughout the western parts of *Tae-wan*, and established an undisputed dominion there. He constituted himself sovereign of the island, assumed a princely style, and fixed his palace and court at *Zelandia*. Then the island assumed a new aspect; for with their proverbial industry he introduced also the Chinese laws, customs, and form of government. He even looked beyond "the beautiful island" to the rich clusters of islands which almost bordered on his narrow domain. He had threatened the Philippines, and was preparing for an expedition against the Spanish there, when he was arrested by death only two years after his gaining Formosa, and left his possessions to his son. Ten years after, when the provinces of *Kwang-tung* and *Fuh-keen* revolted against the emperor *Kang-he*, this son resolved to join the king of *Fuh-keen*: but not being acknowledged by the latter as a sovereign prince, he declared war against the king on the spot, defeated him in several battles, and weakened him so that he was obliged to submit again to the emperor, and receive the tonsure. *Kang-he* now abolished the title of king, and appointed a governor over *Che-kcang* and *Fuh-keen*. This man seized upon the *Pang-hoo* isles, and proclaimed general amnesty to all who submitted to the emperor. This policy had the desired effect of inducing many Formosan emigrants to return again to China, and of weakening the enemy upon the island, till it was finally surrendered to *Kang-he* by the grandson of Koxinga. Thus ended the sovereignty erected by that chief, and Formosa passed into the hands of the Chinese government in 1683.

Little change ensued in the government or customs upon this change of masters. The imperial authority on the island, though often assailed by insurrections during the last 150 years, is still maintained. The lands possessed by the Chinese in Formosa

were at that time divided into three districts; the subject natives composed 45 towns or villages. Little can be said with certainty of the events which have since transpired there.

The two most prominent events are the destructive inundation in 1782, and the rebellion in 1788. The official report of the former disaster states, that in May (which is not the month for typhons,) a wind, rain and swell of the sea together for 12 hours, threatened to overwhelm the island. On its cessation, the public buildings, granaries, barracks, and salt warehouses were found totally destroyed, and most private houses were in ruins: of 27 ships of war, 12 had disappeared, and 12 more were wholly ruined; of other ships, about 200 were lost. Without the harbor, a prodigious number of barks and small vessels disappeared, and left not a piece of wreck behind. The emperor directed that all the houses thrown down should be rebuilt at his expense, (i. e. from the public treasury,) and provisions supplied to the people. "I should feel much pain," said he, "were one of them to be neglected." Subterranean convulsions, says the narrator, may have conspired with the winds to aggravate this calamity.

This event was followed six years later by the most important and bloody rebellion which Formosa has yet witnessed. The particulars of it cannot be given, but its suppression by cruel punishment and almost indiscriminate proscription, tarnished the name of Keenlung, the emperor. M. de Grammont states in a letter of March, 1789, that "the troubles on Formosa are ended at last, but at the cost of a shameful and expensive war to China. She has lost at least a hundred thousand men, destroyed by disease, or the sword of the rebels; and she has expended more than two millions of taels. The only advantage that she has secured, is the recapture from the Formosans of the two places they had seized. According to the returns of the Chinese general to the emperor, the renowned rebel leader, Lin-chwang-wan has been captured and cut into a thousand pieces; but according to private advices, the rebel still survives, and the real sufferer was only a Formosan bearing the same name."

A brief geographical description, adapted to its present condition will be found at the close of this account. One prominent object with the Chinese government in retaining Formosa, second to preserving it from the possession of foreigners, is to prevent its becoming a rendezvous for criminals and desperadoes from the empire. For this purpose they have always maintained a numerous guard of soldiery upon the island. The officers stationed there have been strict, even to vexation, in granting passes to the applicants who come thither from China to trade or to reside. Many hundred thousand emigrants from Fuh-keen, Kwang-tung and Che-keang have peopled the villages of Formosa, and it is said a regular system of extortion is practiced by the officers upon the new comers. They demand a fee so large, that poor settlers have no other means to pay it, than to bind themselves to the officers in a certain portion of their profits till the whole demand is discharged. Thus on

their arrival, many of the emigrants find themselves in a manner slaves to the mandarins, as to them much of their hard earnings must revert. "Though they are industrious," says a recent observer of the island, "yet the emigrants have deservedly a reputation for insubordination and lawlessness. They associate much in clans, and clannish attachments and feuds are cherished among them; but they are very fond of intercourse with foreigners. Many of them are unmarried, or have left their families in China, to whom they hope to return after amassing a little property." Having just escaped from the grinding tyranny of mandarins at home, they naturally wish to enjoy more freedom in their voluntary exile. But the mandarins of Formosa on their part also, by being more removed from the supervision of their superiors, can proceed to more open and extreme extortion than in China itself, since complaint is difficult, and relief still more so. Thus mutual dissatisfaction is excited and cherished, on the one hand by new acts of oppression, and on the other by new arts of evasion or resistance; hence in no part of the empire have insurrections been so frequent as in Tae-wan. The late threatening rebellion there has but just closed, though for some time it has ceased to excite any conversation or interest. The reports from the seat of war were so imperfect or contradictory, that it is either difficult or impossible to obtain satisfactory information.

It appears that the naval and military forces stationed on the island were noways contemptible as to numbers. An imperial report states, that 20,000 of the troops there in garrison had been allowed by their officers so to mingle in the employments and interests of the people, that on the breaking out of the rebellion, no effective force could be mustered on the island. The general cause of the war doubtless was, and the emperor at last acknowledged it, the growing oppression of the officers of government. But there was no unity among the rebels, nor any previous concert to rise against the government. The occasion of the insurrection is said to have been a quarrel between two clans, one of which, by appealing to the officers, brought in the other for an unusual fleecing from the mandarins, which in this case was not endured. The opposition burst forth about 15 miles from Tae-wan, the capital, and 20 or 30 officers with near 2000 men were killed at the first explosion. The news soon spread, and there was a very general rising throughout the districts, and the imperial troops were destroyed or fled into the mountains; they *disappeared*. While troops were being levied and dispatched from the four south-easteru provinces of China, the insurgents were expending their strength against each other. It was said that one clan had seized the capital, and kept possession of it with 30,000 men, and that 50,000 of the hostile clan were marching against them. The navy and most renowned officers were dispatched to suppress the rebellion; commissioners were sent from Peking for the purpose, and woe be to such officers in China, who are not successful by some means or other. At length, by force and money, and if report be true,

not much less by the latter than the former, the insurrection was checked; but it broke out again at different times and places till June, 1833. After a continuance of eight or nine months, "now all are again quiet," says the final report, "and the mind of his majesty is filled with consolation."

After this sufficiently extended sketch of the history of the island, we proceed to its form of government and productions. Formosa, together with the Pang-hoo islands forms one *foo*, or department of the province of Fuh-keen. It is immediately subject to the *foo-yuen* of that province. For an account of its present divisions, we refer to a geographical description in the Canton Register, the writer of which drew from Chinese statistical books. This department, defined as above, comprises six *heens*, or subordinate districts, five of which are in Formosa, the remaining one includes the Pang-hoo isles. The aboriginal inhabitants of the western parts have been mostly subdued and enslaved by the Chinese; but they do not continue in quiet submission to their conquerors, except the small proportion which are styled *matured foreigners*, and are civilized. Tae-wan heen, the chief district, is a narrow tract of land, comprehending a town, 21 Chinese and 3 native villages. The capital Tae-wan, is in latitude 23° N. Its harbor had formerly two entrances, one of which called Ta-keang, is now entirely blocked up by the accumulation of sand; here stood the fort Zelandia. The other is so shallow and intricate on account of shoals that it is impracticable without an experienced pilot. The city of Tae-wan is described as ranking among cities of the first class in China, in the variety and richness of its merchandise, and in population. Its streets are covered many months of the year to avoid the rays of the sun. Fung-shan heen, lies south of the former, and includes a town, 8 villages, and some plantations of Chinese. The native villages are 73, of which 8 only are occupied by the civilized natives. Choo-lo heen lies north of Tae-wan and comprehends a town, 4 Chinese and 33 native villages; 8 belonging to the civilized natives. Chang-hwa heen, besides its town has 16 villages and 132 plantations of Chinese, and 51 native villages. Tan-shwuy heen has a town, 132 farms, and 70 native villages. Pang-hoo ting, according to Nieuhoff who visited it, "has several good harbors and two commodious bays, where ships may ride safely at anchor in eight or nine fathoms of water. It contains many populous villages, the islands being all well stored with inhabitants, with fat cattle, especially cows, and birds of all sorts, with an incredible number of fine, large cocks. Here are always seen many Chinese vessels for fishing and traffic; the islands are many in number; the two most famous are Fisher's island, (which is the western,) and Pehoo. The south-east side of Fisher's island is so barren that it produces not a tree." Perhaps this last remark may aid us to understand other accounts which represent these islands as desolate and barren.

A chain of mountains divides the island in its whole length, from north to south, forming in general, the barrier between the

Chinese on the west, and the independent natives of the unexplored eastern side. Many of these mountains are very lofty, sometimes slightly covered with snow; some are volcanic and sulphureous.

Of the native inhabitants, there are three classes; *first*, those who have not only submitted to the Chinese, but also have adopted many improvements from them, and have advanced beyond their former rude state towards civilization. These were instructed by the Dutch as has been related; but having lost their teachers and pastors together, it is not to be supposed that they retain much knowledge of Christianity now, after a period of 170 years. The jesuit Du Halde, who wrote seventy years later, and who would not have judged too favorably says; "the people adore no idols, and abominate every approach to them, yet they perform no act of worship nor recite any prayers. There are many who understand the Dutch language, can read their books, and who in writing use their letters, and many fragments of pious Dutch books are found amongst them."

The *second* class is composed of the aborigines, who though acknowledging the authority of the Chinese, yet retain their primitive customs, and are called "*raw natives*." This class comprises much the greater part of them who are subject to the Chinese. The *third* portion includes all the unsubdued and independent tribes and villages, of whom we have an imperfect knowledge. It appears however, that they have no books or written language; that they have no king or common head, but petty chiefs, and councils of elders and distinguished men, in that respect, much like the North American Indians. It does not appear whether they have any separate priesthood, but it is probable that there is none beyond the conjurers and enchanterers of all savage tribes, nor any ancient and fixed ceremonies of divine worship, or system of superstition. They are represented by the Chinese as free from theft and deception among themselves, and just towards each other, but excessively revengeful when outraged. In their marriages, which are made by mutual choice, the bride takes home the bridegroom to her parents' house, and he returns no more to his father's; "therefore they think it no happiness to have male children." They are of a slender shape, olive complexion, wear long hair, are clad with a piece of cloth from the waist to the knees; they blacken their teeth, and wear earrings, and collars. In the southern part, those who are not civilized, live in cottages of bamboo and straw, raised on a kind of terrace three or four feet high, built like an inverted funnel, and from 15 to 40 feet in diameter. In these they have neither chair, table, bed, nor any moveable; they place their food on a mat or board and use their fingers in eating, as the apes do. They tattoo their skin. In the north part they clothe themselves with deer skins.

That portion of *Formosa* which is possessed by the Chinese well deserves its name; the air is wholesome, and the soil very fruitful. The numerous rivulets from the mountains fertilize the

extensive plains which spread below; but throughout the island the water is unwholesome to drink, and to unacclimated strangers it is often very injurious. "All the trees are so beautifully ranged, that when the rice is planted, as usual, in a line and checkerwise, all this large plain of the southern part resembles a vast garden which industrious hands have taken pains to cultivate." Almost all grains and fruits may be produced on one part of the island or another; but rice, sugar, camphor, tobacco, &c., are the chief productions. Formosa has long been familiarly known as the granary of the Chinese maritime provinces. If wars intervene, or violent storms prevent the shipment of rice to the coast, a scarcity immediately ensues, and extensive distresses, with another sure result—multiplied piracies by the destitute Chinese. Some idea of the exports from the island may be formed from the reports of an European who has visited the island, and who is intimately acquainted with the maritime provinces of China. "The quantity of rice exported from Formosa to Fuh-keen and Che-keang is very considerable, and employs more than 300 junks. Of sugar, there annually arrive at the single port of Teen-tsin upwards of 70 loaded junks. Much of the camphor in the Canton market is supplied from Formosa. The greater part of the colonists are cultivators of the soil, but many of the Amoy men are merchants, fishermen, and sailors. The capital which they employ is very great and the business profitable. The natives have receded farther and farther towards the east coast, and have been partly amalgamated with the planters. The whole population may amount to *two or three millions.*"

The position of Formosa is admirable as affording facilities for trade; within 30 leagues of China, 150 of Japan, and less of the Philippines, its situation and resources make it a desirable station for the commerce which is now opening and yet to be opened in these long forbidden lands. But except Ke-lung, there is no good harbor yet explored on the whole coast; at Tae-wan, the greatest depth at high water is eight or nine feet. The Lord Amherst, which stopped at Formosa a few days in 1832, could not approach within several miles of the shore. Junks also lay a long way outside, and received their cargoes in lighters. It is well known that the harbors are becoming shoaler, and the land is increasing by constant and large accretions of sand. The currents in the channel are very strong, so that unless the wind be fair, Chinese vessels cannot bear up to regain their course; and in passing from Fuh-keen to Formosa, they have often been driven so far to the south, that they not could reach their destination, when not unfrequently they bring up at Cochinchina or Siam, there to await a change of the monsoon. But foreign ships, during the last and present winter, beat up the channel against the full strength of the northeast monsoon and the current; yet this can be accomplished only by strong and superior sailing ships.

THE CHINESE NAVY.—The Peking gazette of the 17th day of the 9th moon, October 29th, 1833, contains a paper of six pages concerning the *navy* of China, from the pen (or rather pencil) of his imperial majesty. It was occasioned by the operations of the Canton navy, a few months ago, on the coast of Cochinchina, when a pirate named Chin-kea-hae was taken prisoner. He was really a Chinese, but made himself *a citizen of either nation as suited his convenience*. It will certainly be better for some people, when all are allowed to be *citizens of the world*, but amenable to no one state in particular. • The emperor's attention being called to the navy by the operations above alluded to, and by some failures against pirates on the coast of Fuh-keen, he takes occasion to admonish in rather severe terms on the present state of the Chinese navy. He begins his paper by this first principle, that, "according to the ancients, in the government of a nation, while civilians required rubbing up, the military no less required a brushing. Government," he says, "appoints soldiers for the protection of the people; and naval captains are not less important than dry-land soldiers. But the navy has lately fallen off, as appears by many cases of failure on the high seas.

"On shore a man's ability is measured by his archery and his horsemanship; but a sailor's talent by his ability to fight with, and on the water. A sailor must know the winds and the clouds, and the lands and the lines (or passages among the sands). He must be thoroughly versed in breaking a spear with (or beating against) the wind. He must know, like a god, how to break through the billows, handle his ship, and be all in regular order for action. Then, when his spears are thrown they will pierce; and his guns will follow to give them effect. The spitting tornadoes of the fire-physic (gunpowder) will all reach truly their mark; and whenever pirates are met with, they will be vanquished wonderously. No aim will miss its mark. The pirate banditti will be impoverished and crippled, and even on the high seas, when they take to flight, they will be followed and caught and slaughtered. Thus the monsters of the deep, and the waves will be still, and the sea become a perfect calm, not a ripple will be raised.

"But, far different from this, has of late been the fact. The navy is a nihilty. There is the *name* of going to sea; but there is no going to sea in *reality*. Cases of piracy are perpetually occurring, *and even barbarian barks anchor in our inner seas*, without the least notice being taken of them! I, the emperor consider," &c. Here his majesty looks back on the past, and has rather dismal forebodings for the future, arising from such an uncomely appearance of things;—but, the shadows of night are obscuring his paper, and the translator is weary of his subject and therefore leaves the rest to the imagination of the reader. After advising and threatening his naval servants, the emperor adds "do not hereafter say that you were not early warned."

SEAMEN IN THE PORT OF CANTON.—In no place in the world is the character and conduct of seamen more deserving of consideration, than in China; for nowhere else does so much depend on their deportment. We do not say this solely or chiefly on account of the magnitude and importance of the foreign trade, but in consideration of the liability of that trade to be hindered or stopped in consequence of the ill conduct of sailors. Of all the causes which have heretofore interrupted the commerce with the Chinese, and led to long protracted and vexatious disputes with the local authorities, this has been one of the most frequent. And if the contemplated changes in the British trade take place, as they most surely will, there is reason to fear that still more serious evils may arise in future from the same cause. In order to show that the most undesirable consequences may result from the rash and improper conduct of seamen here, we will cite a few, from among a very great number of occurrences, which bear directly on the point in question. We do not allude to past transactions with any other view than that they may serve as beacons to warn off from danger those who may hereafter visit this port; nor will we designedly attribute to seamen any of that blame which justly belongs to those natives who rudely attack them, cozen them, or decoy them into evil.

The first case which we have to notice occurred in 1721. The *Bonita*, a trading vessel at Whampoa, was preparing to sail for Madras, when David Griffiths, a man belonging to one of the other ships, having engaged to sail in her, procured one of her boats to trans-ship his effects. On his way to the *Bonita*, a custom-house boat made towards him, intending to search his boat. "Griffiths, being intoxicated and also alarmed for his property, fired a musket at the Chinese boat, and killed one of the custom-house men. The next morning, the corpse was laid before the door of the English factory, and a supercargo belonging to the *Bonita*, who happened to be the first Englishman that went out of the factory, was apprehended by the officers of the Chinese police, and led chained about the streets of Canton. Griffiths, was secured and confined on board one of the East India company's ships, whilst endeavors were made by the factory to appease the Chinese, which however was not done, nor the release of the supercargo obtained, until the culprit was delivered into their hands."

In 1772, a Chinese and some Europeans were wounded in an affray, which originated in the fourth officer of the *Lord Camden* having incurred debts which he was unable to pay; the trade was in consequence stopped.

In 1800, the supercargoes of the company "made strong representations to the court, respecting the English sailors and their riotous conduct while on shore at Canton, whither they were occasionally permitted to go to purchase necessaries. It was hoped that the court would seize any opportunity to make regulations which might be effectual, as the scenes described were disgraceful in the eyes of the Chinese, embarrassing to the company's

interests and to their servants, and highly offensive to all descriptions of persons."

Again in 1804 the attention of the court was called to the "long established practice" of permitting the seamen to spend three days on shore at Canton, "where they are exposed to the arts practiced by the Chinese of mixing their liquors with ingredients of an irritating and maddening effect, causing a state of *inebriety more ferocious than that occasioned by any other spirit*, and leading to riotous scenes of the greatest enormity, and which tend to keep alive in the minds of the Chinese, the most unfavorable opinion of our character."

The circumstances connected with the execution of the unfortunate Francis Terranova, an Italian sailor serving on board an American ship, in 1821, are yet fresh in the recollections of many. We do not undertake to say what degree of blame was imputable to him in causing the death of *Ko-leang-she*. It is generally believed that he was bartering with that woman for ardent spirits, when the quarrel arose which ended in her death. The charge of murder was brought against him, the *whole* American trade was stopped, and the security merchant and linguist of the ship *Emily*, to which he belonged, were both arrested, and placed in close confinement within the walls of the city of Canton. On the 25th of October, Terranova was brought from Whampoa, and placed in irons at the public hall of the hong merchants. "During the two following days, the forms of a Chinese trial were gone through in the same place, but the precise nature of the proceedings can only be conjectured, as no foreigner of any description was allowed to be present; and on the third day, about day-break, notwithstanding a very general expectation entertained here, that his life would be spared, the unfortunate man was brought forth and publicly strangled at the usual place of execution, without the walls of the city. His body was given up to the Americans in the course of the evening, and on the following day, the trade was reopened."

The preceding instances of disturbances, and the testimony concerning them, will suffice for our present purpose of showing that the most serious consequences may result from the bad conduct of seamen here; and that the acts of a single individual, in a fit of intoxication, may put in jeopardy the property and the persons of many. These unpleasant occurrences have not been confined to men of any one nation; they have been witnessed among seamen under most, if not all the several flags, which visit this port. Latterly they have been less frequent, probably, than they were thirty years ago. Still they have occurred recently, and will continue to do so, unless most carefully guarded against.

The liquor which is given to sailors on entering most of the shops which they are wont to frequent in Canton, and which is frequently conveyed to them either openly or secretly at Whampoa, is a rare dose, composed often of *alcohol, tobacco juice, sugar, and arsenic*. The liquor which contains the alcohol, and

which constitutes the principal part of the dose, is literally and very properly called *ho-tsew*, 'fire liquor.' Its effects, with the substances mixed with it, are awful; when taken in considerable quantities, it not only destroys the reason and senses of the man, but, at intervals, it throws him into the most frightful paroxysms of rage.

Some may say that "the reformation and improvement of seamen cannot be effected, their case is hopeless, and they must be left to take their own course," i. e. must continue to be neglected. But the success that has already attended the incipient efforts for their improvement demonstrates clearly that their case is not hopeless. To raise them to the rank, in regard to moral character and conduct, which they ought and are able to hold, needs only the prompt, united and persevering efforts of those who are engaged in commerce, coöperating with the numerous friends of seamen who are rising up to plead their cause in every part of Christendom.

Most of those who are engaged in the trade with the Chinese are aware of the difficulties and embarrassments, to which they are exposed on account of the misconduct of seamen. Should any such, or others who are about to embark in this trade, inquire "how may these evils be avoided?" We would answer; "in the first place, take the most special care to employ commanders and officers who can be relied on for maintaining discipline; and in the second place, let the commanders see to it that they have orderly crews, composed of temperate and trustworthy men." With these precautions, and a proper degree of carefulness by all while they are in port, not the least difficulty need be apprehended. But it is not enough that foreign seamen abstain from acts of aggression. As civilized and Christian men they should exhibit conduct worthy of such a character and name. We give our most decided approbation to the efforts of those who are striving to elevate and improve the character of seamen; and, so far as we may have opportunity, shall joyfully coöperate with them in their good work.

In a short "Address to masters, officers, and seamen, in the port of Canton," published last September, the seamen's chaplain notices several things which he deems it desirable to accomplish here for the benefit of seamen, and several evils which are to be removed. But one thing of moment, which deserves immediate attention, he did not notice; we refer to some *medical aid for the sick*. Whether improvements cannot be made in the accommodations for seamen on board ship, is a question that demands more attention than it has yet received. Few individuals would be willing to take up with the ordinary accommodations of common seamen. Could these men be better provided for, there would be among them doubtless less sickness, and fewer deaths. There is an economy which tendeth to poverty and distress. To the exercise of this economy in the accommodations of seamen, may be attributed many of the discomforts, and much of the sick-

ness and premature death prevalent among them. Go to the merchantman, when she is about to sail on a voyage of ten months or a year, and see what preparations are made for her crew during that long time. A space twenty feet long, by ten or twelve wide, having little light and poorly ventilated, without chairs or table, half filled with berths and chests and the persons of ten or twenty men, is their only room for eating and sleeping, and generally also for their accommodation in times of sickness. On their homeward passage, a part even of this space is often occupied by stores, &c. While the ships are in this port, during the first autumnal months, when the weather by day is usually very hot, the air in these forecastles becomes so close, confined, and warm as to render them utterly unfit for dormitories. Hence, where it is allowed, the sailors accustom themselves to sleep upon deck, till the fever and ague, or other disease, obliges them to retreat from the cold, damp night air, and seek for rest in their berths.

Of the American ships employed in the Chinese trade, very few are provided with physicians. English laws require that every British ship having more than forty men on board shall be provided with a surgeon. But if the large ships of the East India company cease to frequent this port, it is probable that a very considerable part of the English merchantmen will be equally destitute with the American ships. With eighty or a hundred ships then annually visiting this port, shall there be no medical aid provided for their sick? Something, it seems to us should be done. The medical gentlemen who are resident at Canton might, perhaps, by fitting up a hospital at Whampoa and securing the aid of one or more medical practitioners, make all the necessary and desired arrangements. Or some other plan might be adopted, other medical gentlemen might, perhaps, independently, establish themselves there, and during the business season attend upon the sick and administer to their wants. At Lintin also, if the shipping continues to increase, as it seems likely to do, the constant presence of a medical gentleman will soon, no doubt, be deemed indispensable.

GOVERNMENT GRATUITIES, in times of calamity and scarcity. That the Chinese government does nothing for the poor and distressed is not true; but to use a Chinese phrase, there is so often "the *name*, without the *reality*," as to make the doing appear next to nothing. These remarks are suggested by two official papers before us, which were recently issued in the form of proclamations to the people.

When in the month of August last, the middle of the seventh moon, the rains, the winds, and the rivers conspired to wash away or rend to pieces the humble dwellings of the poor, the government sent around surveyors to take a list of the names of the sufferers. On the 28th of the 11th moon (the 7th instant), an official document was published by *Hwang* and *Le*, i. e. "Yellow" and

"Plum," the magistrates who divide the city of Canton between them, stating that on the 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, days of the 12th moon the sufferers from the inundation (which occurred about five months ago), might apply for relief which would be paid to them out of sums, subscribed by the public, in the following proportions.

To the poor who were utterly unable to rebuild their houses, and where one roof had fallen in, were to be paid 2 mace 5 candareens.

To the poor whose houses had fallen in and who were destitute, money was to be given for two months food; i. e. for every big person's mouth were to be given, per mensem, 1m. 3 c. 5 cash; and to every little persons (or child's) mouth one half of that sum. That is (as the proclamation states it) for two months, each big mouth was to receive 2 m. 7 c.; and each little mouth 1m. 3 c. 5 c.

Thus, a poor man, five months after the falling in of his house, who has strength to wait and rush and reach the distributor with his ticket, will get two mace and five candareens gratuity to help to rebuild his house. But this sum (about, say largely, 2 shillings sterling), as a native has observed, is not enough to remove the rubbish of a fallen in house, nor to buy a single beam.

The supply of rice to the poor by government, notified in another proclamation, is on the same liberal scale. The allowance per month for "big mouths" or grown people is given at a rate of money value 1 m. 3 c. 5 c. For "little mouths" or children the abatement is valued at one half of this. Thus the poor may apply at once for the two months' allowance, or 2 m. 7 c. 0 c. for the "big mouths;" and 1 m. 3 c. 5 c. for the little mouths. But here again, to obtain this pittance, of from one to two shillings, there is so much rushing and pushing and waiting,—for the aged and feeble have to go two or three days successively before they can reach the distributing officer, who does not preside many hours per day,—it becomes a question with many whether to go or not. Of course those who have employment, are not required to go and would do better to stay at home. We state these facts to show the case, and not for the purpose of reflecting on the government, for with the best intentions their task is difficult.

LITERARY NOTICES.

Tan-kwei-tseih, the Olea fragrans miscellany: or some say, *the Laurus cassia, which grew in heaven and fell from the moon.*

This is the title of a collection of Chinese religious and ethical essay in four small vols. It is a popular work and is often given away by benevolent natives as an expression of gra-

titude-for mercies received. We bought our copy, but the title page gives the name of a person who printed a thousand copies, for distribution in the twenty-third year of the late emperor Kea-king. The value is about two mace five candareens, or one third of a Spanish dollar.

This fragrant miscellany is

of the eclectic school, and contains extracts from the writings of the Confucian sect or the *Joo-keaou*, and also from *Shih* and *Taou*, i. e. the Buddhists and Taouists. There is in it consequently a good deal of variety of opinion, and rather contradictory sentiments, but supposed to be consistent in one thing, viz. in being favorable to virtue and opposed to vice. For example, the preface sets out with the high-flying doctrine of infidelity, that hope of reward and fear of punishment are incompatible with virtue; and yet the body of the book is filled with the sentiment that virtue is rewarded and vice punished in this life.

The two first volumes contain various essays on morals; and papers which profess to be revelations from the gods; and the two remaining volumes consist of illustrations and proofs, derived from legendary tales, which are often frivolous and silly, and generally absurd fictions.

The style of these books is generally sententious and perspicuous; abounding in point and energy. The thoughts are sometimes beautiful and just; but often disfigured by superstition and nonsense. The whole book is what in Europe is called a "pious fraud." In our opinion no fraud can be pious; man should never do evil that good may come, nor attempt to help the truth by telling a lie. In religion and morals, *truth* alone is of value. If superstition be any check on the vices of mankind it is only in consequence of its containing some portion of truth.

In this collection there are about forty essays, most of which are common to Chinese ethics. The mere titles of them would give but little idea of their contents; and a translation of them would be too voluminous. In them however, many virtues are inculcated, though from mistaken principles, and fallacious sanctions. Filial piety of course holds a chief place. Truth, honesty, chastity, temperance, mercy and kindness are all taught. And, what is remarkable for a pagan and a Chinese, humility, forbearance, and the forgiveness of injuries are also inculcated.

There are dissuaves against gambling, infanticide, and unnatural crimes; against slander, backbiting, and envy. Some of the papers have already appeared in Morrison's Chinese works, but the most of them are new to the readers of the western world. We hope as Chinese scholars increase, translations from curious books like that before us will more abound.

Memoirs of Louis the XVIII.
written by himself. 2 Vols.
London, 1832.

If this book be a faithful picture of the court of France, and the Romish religion, it would seem that vice and superstition were as prevalent in Paris, the most scientific city in Christendom, as in pagan China.

Louis the XVth died in the midst of the vices in which he had lived; but what is called the "last sacrament" in the book before us, was thought essential to, and seemingly perfectly sufficient for, the "king's eternal welfare." Still the

priests were afraid to administer it lest the king should recover. Five or six bishops were "invested with the duty of providing for the king's salvation." Yet owing to the selfishness and fears of all parties, "the ball," our memorialist says, "was bandied from hand to hand and the precious time so wasted, that it became not improbable that the soul of the eldest son of the church might have been carried off by Satan" for want of the "last sacrament," admin-

istered by the hands of a consecrated priest. The grand almoner, who was applied to, *feigned a sudden indisposition*, till the king's death appeared certain, and then "being no longer afraid of the king's displeasure," he at once became quite well and officiated "*in pontificalibus*;" made a lying speech to the clergy and people at the foot of the royal bed, and gave the communion to save the king's soul!

RELIGIOUS INTELLIGENCE.

THE LOST TEN TRIBES OF ISRAEL.—Concerning these ancient inhabitants of western Asia, we have received the following letter from a correspondent. He says:—

"From Calcutta and Madras there have lately been gentlemen visitors in China, who had personal acquaintance with Mr. Wolff, the far-famed Jewish missionary, who has traversed central Asia in search of the so-called *lost ten tribes*. Mr. Wolff is generally considered, not only as enthusiastic in the extreme; but even to be a little beside himself, though to all appearance a pious man. However, the utter ignorance of educated gentlemen, concerning these said *tribes*, as manifested in conversation, was occasionally very extraordinary.

You know, Mr. Editor, that Mr. Wolff has not found the lost tribes, and I am inclined to think, with Dr. Jahn, in his history of the Hebrew commonwealth, (p. 155—159) that there are no such lost tribes to be

found, for the decree of Cyrus, [B. C. 536] inviting the people of the Lord God of heaven to go and rebuild Jerusalem, (Ezra i. 1,) included not only the captives of Judah, but also the captives of Israel. And as the jealousy between Judah and Israel had now ceased, according to the predictions of the prophets, they united, and all received the denomination of Jews. "All questions therefore, and investigations, for the purpose of ascertaining what has become of the *ten tribes*, and whether it is likely they will ever be discovered, are *superfluous and idle*."

Your's obediently,

* * * *

MODERN BENEVOLENCE.—Perhaps there has never appeared a more remarkable phenomenon or been a more cheering event in the history of man than is the increase of benevolent exertions within the last forty years. For an illustration of this remark, look at the efforts made for a

single object, the spread of the gospel of salvation. The first missionary society in England was formed in 1792; and from that year we may date the commencement of those truly Christian efforts which promise ere long to change the moral aspect of the world, and extend the blessings of civilization, intelligence and true religion to every nation and family on earth. Associations for benevolent purposes have since been constantly increasing in number and efficiency. A mighty machinery is now in operation; too well planned and directed to fail of effecting its object, and too powerful to be resisted. Its influence is already extensively felt and will soon pervade the world. The following brief statements taken from the latest reports which we have at hand, respecting some of the most important societies in England and America, will serve to confirm the truth of our remark. We begin with those of England.

1. The British and Foreign Bible Society formed in 1804, has issued 6,119,376 Bibles and Testaments, in 143 languages and dialects. In the year 1829-30, the number was 434,424. Income £84,982.

2. The London Missionary Society was instituted in 1795. It employs, chiefly in India, Africa, and the south sea islands, 13 printing presses, 92 ordained missionaries, 20 European and 150 native assistants; and has under its care 391 schools containing 22,193 scholars. Income £48,526.

3. The Church Missionary Society, founded in 1800, employs in Hindostan, Africa,

and other countries, 59 missionaries, 102 European and 483 native assistants, and has in its schools 15,791 scholars. Income £47,328.

4. The Wesleyan Missionary Society employs 229 missionaries, and has more than 30,000 scholars in its schools. Income £55,265.

5. The Society for propagating the gospel, formed in 1701, but revived within the period named above, employs 160 missionaries and supports wholly or in part 4 colleges in foreign countries. Income £29,168.

6. Society for promoting Christian knowledge. Estimated income, £60,000.

7. The Religious Tract Society formed in 1799, has published 1300 different tracts and books, and issued probably between 170 and 180 millions of copies. In 1829-30, 10,900,000. Income £24,973.

8. The Baptist Missionary Society formed in 1792, employs 28 missionaries, and 260 native assistants. Income £11,300.

The income of other societies on the list before us, nearly all of which have the same general object, is £49,875; making a total of £431,717; which is expended chiefly for the benefit of foreign countries. We will now notice a few of the most prominent benevolent associations in the United States of America.

1. The American Board of Commissioners for foreign missions, organized in 1810, employs 75 missionaries, and 178 American and 34 native assistants. Its printing presses have issued 61,000,000 of pages in 12 different languages; 14,200,000 in 1831-32. Its schools contain

59,824 learners. Income, \$130,574.

2. The Bible Society, organized in 1816, has published about 1,084,513 Bibles and Testaments;— 238,583 in 1829-30. Income \$170,067.

3. The Tract Society, instituted in 1825, has issued 648 different publications, of which about 28,954,173 copies have been put in circulation. Income \$62,443.

4. The Home Missionary Society employs 509 missionaries and agents, chiefly in the western states. Income \$43,240.

5. The Education Society assists 673 young men in procuring such an education as will qualify them to become preachers of the gospel. Income \$41,927.

6. The Baptist Board for foreign missions. Income \$20,000.

The income of other societies whose object, with one or two exceptions, is the same, \$142,645; making a total of \$641,439.

Thus England and the United States alone expend, by means of these societies, to say nothing of what is contributed in other ways, for benevolent purposes *more than two millions, five hundred thousand dollars annually*. In addition to this, probably not less than 1,500,000 children receive instruction in their

Sabbath schools from at least 150,000 teachers, who thus make a *weekly* donation of 25,000 days' time to the cause of benevolence.

Let this benevolent spirit continue to increase, and it will soon fill every dark place with light; and cause the whole world to rejoice in its genial influence. Let it progress during the next 40 years in the same ratio in which it has during the last 40, and wherever it is allowed to extend its operation, it will give every child an opportunity to attend a school, give every slave his liberty, enable every individual to hear the gospel preached, and give to every family that will receive it, a copy of the word of God. But opposition and reverses are to be expected, and the grand result, the universal diffusion of the blessings of science and Christianity will probably, not be witnessed within so short a period as that just named. Yet the above statements show an increase of benevolence at which every friend of man must rejoice. It is the true "glory of the age." Viewed in connection with the promises of God it may justly be regarded as a sure indication that the true golden age of the world, when knowledge, virtue, and happiness will be universal, is fast approaching.

JOURNAL OF OCCURRENCES.

REVENUE OF CHINA.—In a gazette of the 11th of October there is a long document, which is the result of deliberations among the several supreme boards and the *hoo-poo* or treasury department. Its object is to increase the revenue for current expenses;

because, during the last few years, the outlay has exceeded the income more than *thirty millions of taels*. This is attributed to the two Mohammedan rebellions, together with the "ugly monkey tricks" of the highland mountaineers; also the calamities from

water and drought, in opposite extremes, which made it necessary to remit the land-tax, during the last two years of his majesty's reign; and to the various public works in repairing the banks of rivers, which have drained both the general and provincial treasuries. The method now adopted to raise money is the sale of office, i. e. eligibility to office, as vacancies may occur. This method has been resorted to several times of late years, for a given period. The present term is to continue till the 5th moon of next year, when it will be closed. Each of these periods, like the European loans, has an appropriate name. The sale now open is called the *Chow pe king fei he*, and the vacancies occurring are to be filled up in certain proportions by the old and the new purchasers. But the system is altogether a bad one. Many of the old purchasers are unemployed and standing idle for want of office; and those who get into office, having bought their places, deem it but just to repay themselves as fast as possible from the people.

Since the preceding was in type, more information has come to hand on the same subject. In the gazette of the 9th moon, 25th day, (Nov. 9th,) there is an elaborate state paper concerning the revenue, by the censor of the province of Keang-se, *Nu-sze-hung-ah*, a Tartar, as his name and style indicate, for he calls himself *noo-tsae*, 'a slave,' which is the usage of the Tartar statesmen, whereas Chinese call themselves *chin* 'a servant.' This slave says, that the whole income from land tax, salt monopoly, customs and duties, with items paid to make these good, does not exceed forty and odd millions of taels; and the regular outlay of the nation is thirty and odd millions. He adds, that although the overplus be not great, yet were there no deficiencies of income, the machine of state would go on long, and the supply be abundant. But of late years, there has not been one in which numerous defalcations in every department have not occurred, so that the income has not been adequate for times of tranquillity; whilst in cases of insurrection, scarcity, and so forth, the deficiency has amounted to millions; and to supply these, various expedients have been proposed. Some have been for opening the mines; some have advised

raising the price of salt; some for selling appointments, and persuading merchants to subscribe for the wants of the state; thus causing anxiety to the sacred mind of his majesty, on whom it devolved to balance the advantages and disadvantages of these plans, and either to reject them at once, or give them a trial, and then desist. But these measures have been only the result of necessity, and not of any well digested and permanent plan.

ROBBERY.—On the evening of the 10th of Jan. about ten o'clock, a band of robbers in the district Kaou-ming, repaired by torch light to plunder a respectable clothier's shop, situated at the entrance of Po-shih (broken stone) street. They carried off property worth from one to two thousand dollars.

An officer of an adjoining guard-house saw the robbers proceed to their booty, but was afraid to attack them with his inferior force. However, he secreted himself near the path by which they retired, and under the cover of darkness, shot twenty or thirty arrows against the crowd of plunderers. They, notwithstanding went off; and the next morning revealed that many of them had been wounded; for the arrows tinged with blood were thrown upon the path. One of their number severely wounded, remained behind, and died before any confession was obtained from him.

King, the local magistrate, directed the parties concerned to report the matter as a case of simple theft, and not of open robbery. The neighbors complied, but the father and son, belonging to the shop plundered, refused to conceal the truth, and by the last accounts were kept in custody in order to compel them to comply with the direction of the magistrate. However, the surrounding neighborhood, became roused by the firmness of the father and son, demanded their release, and that the case should be prosecuted according to the facts. To bring the local magistrate to terms, the markets were discontinued, the shops closed, all business suspended. The people in fact struck—they stopped the trade. This proceeding is known in China by the term *Pa-she*.

HOMICIDE.—In a Peking gazette of November 22d, the emperor delivers a

severe censure on the governors of provinces, and their subordinate officers for delay and inattention in cases of homicide. The circumstance which called his attention to the subject, was an appeal from the province of Canton, which alleged that nine lives had been destroyed eleven years ago, and no satisfaction obtained from the government. Governors and lieut. governors are expressly appointed, his majesty says, to take care of the lives of the people, and they should unite with the judges and see into affairs themselves. Speedy justice is required, that the dead may be satisfied, and the living witnesses set free. The emperor then threatens those governors, &c., who notwithstanding this admonition are found remiss.

Decapitation of a son for the murder of his father.—In Shen-se, a young man being vexed with a creditor, who was urging his claims with abusive language, picked up a stone and threw it at him as he stood in the door-way. At that moment the creditor stooped, and the father of the young man rose, and the stone, passing over the foe, killed the father. The son for this unintentional parricide is condemned to be decapitated. Had it been intentional, he would have suffered the slow and ignominious punishment of being cut to pieces; but as it was confessedly unintentional, the sentence was commuted to merely cutting off his head! Surely it may be said, their tender mercies are cruel.

HETERODOXY.—In the province of Shan-tung, the propagators of what the Chinese call *scay-keou*, 'depraved doctrines,' have been apprehended. But, as it usually happens in such cases, the doctrines which they propagate are not specified in the gazette.

SZE-CHUEN.—On the frontiers of this province there have recently been some military operations against the barbarians. Twenty-three of the prisoners taken were put to death. The imperial troops pursued the enemy among the hills, killing and burning in all directions. They found also

some Chinese women, who had been previously carried off.

COAST OF CHE-KEANG.—It appears by reports in the gazettes, that vessels of Corea and Lew-chew have been wrecked on this coast, during the last season.

KOKONOR.—The head Tartar prince at Kokonor has "sickened and made a vacancy," i. e. died. To select another from the kings and nobles is spoken of as a great event, previously to which a sacrifice was offered to the *Tsing-hae*, 'azure sea'-lake Kokonor.

The barber's shop, or stall, is in China the place to which travelers, in town or village, repair for local information, and the news of the day. A man who wants his head shaved, or his hair platted, has a right to enter the shop; and as it is said of portrait painting, that a talent for conversation is essential to the artist, so it is in barbering—the shaver, who can lather his customer well, or, as is the case in China, (where the barbers do not use soap,) can scald him well and bring off the hair, and at the same time regale him with news or scandal, is sure to succeed.

Idolatry of an aged statesman. Wang-how-ho, an old officer of the board of rites at Peking, returned thanks to the emperor for having sent him, on the 70th anniversary of his birth, an inscription for his gate, and the word *longevity* written with his majesty's own hand; also an image of Budha. The old statesman says, on receiving the heavenly marks of the emperor's favor, he spread out an altar of incense on the ground in token of his gratitude! Alas, what childish idolatry in the emperor and in his ministers.

The emperor has received his mother's orders to confer the titles "imperial, honorable," &c., on three of his concubines; and has ordered the board of rites to search and see what are the proper formalities for so grand an occasion.

Postscript. The commercial business of Canton, during the current season, has been carried on with few interruptions. Almost all the foreign ships have already left the port. The Chinese are busily employed in arranging their affairs for the *new year*, which occurs on the 9th of February. All public offices will be closed on the 29th instant, the 20th of the 12th moon.

